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TITLE: **Blast Concussion mTBI, Hypopituitarism, and Psychological Health in OIF/OEF Veterans**

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14. ABSTRACT Studies of traumatic brain injury from all causes have found evidence of chronic posttraumatic hypopituitarism (PTHP) in 25-50% of cases. PTHP, and in particular adult growth hormone deficiency (GHD), is associated with symptoms resembling those of PTSD, including fatigue, anxiety, depression, irritability, insomnia, sexual dysfunction, cognitive deficiencies, and decreased quality of life. However, the prevalence of PTHP after blast-related mild TBI (mTBI) has not previously been characterized. We have measured concentrations of 12 pituitary and target-organ hormones in two groups of male US Veterans of combat in Iraq or Afghanistan: one group with blast-related mTBI and a second group with similar deployment histories but without blast exposure. Our findings thus far are that 11 of 26, or 42% of the mTBI group were found to have one or more abnormal hormone levels. Five Veterans in the mTBI group were found with hormone levels consistent with GHD, and three had testosterone and gonadotropin concentrations indicative of hypogonadism. None of the Veterans in the deployment control group were found with any hormonal abnormalities. If symptoms characteristic of both PTHP and PTSD can be linked to neuroendocrine dysfunction, they may be amenable to treatment with hormone replacement. Hormonal evaluations of additional participants in both groups are in progress.					
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INTRODUCTION:

Chronic hypopituitarism (deficient production of one or more anterior pituitary hormones) occurs in 25-50% of cases of civilian traumatic brain injury (TBI). However, the prevalence of posttraumatic hypopituitarism (PTHP) after blast concussion mild TBI (mTBI) has not been determined despite the fact that repetitive blast concussion is the signature injury of combat in Iraq and Afghanistan. PTHP is associated with symptoms easily mistaken for those of PTSD including fatigue, mood disturbances, anxiety and depression, irritability, insomnia, memory loss, social isolation, and decreased quality of life. Muscular weakness, erectile dysfunction, infertility, and diminished cardiovascular function are also frequent consequences. These symptoms, if appropriately diagnosed as consequences of PTHP, can be treated successfully with hormone replacement. The objectives of this study are to measure basal hormone concentrations in blood from Veterans who sustained at least one blast-induced concussion during deployment to Iraq or Afghanistan. The values will be compared to hormone levels in combat-zone Veterans without blast exposure or PTSD as well as civilian control subjects to determine the frequency and nature of pituitary dysfunction resulting from blast mTBI. Methods for screening for PTHP will be developed and refined. Accurate, routine diagnosis of PTHP has the potential of markedly improving the psychological health and facilitating the recovery of blast mTBI victims.

BODY:

Current Status of Accomplishment of Tasks Described in the SOW

Specific Aim 1: Measurement of basal concentrations of anterior pituitary hormones and their target-organ hormones in serum or plasma from 100 male civilian control subjects in order to establish normative parameters for each hormone concentration.

Task 1: Obtainment of all regulatory approvals required in order to proceed with this aim: biohazard, radiation safety, local institutional review board (IRB), and Department of Defense (DOD) Human Research Protection Office (HRPO) human subjects approval.

Status of Task 1: Completed.

Task 2: Measurement of the 12 hormones (adrenocorticotropin [ACTH], cortisol, thyroid-stimulating hormone [TSH], free thyroxine, growth hormone [GH], insulin-like growth factor I [IGF-I], luteinizing hormone [LH], follicle-stimulating hormone [FSH], total testosterone, prolactin [PRL], vasopressin, and oxytocin) in blood samples from 100 community control subjects will require:

- a) selection of a commercially available hormone assay kit for each hormone and tests of the performance of the assays as carried out according to the manufacturers' protocols. Test assays

will not be performed until biohazard and radiation safety approvals have been obtained. Measurement of cortisol, IGF-I, LH, and vasopressin will be measured by radioimmunoassay (RIA) techniques. All other hormones will be measured using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) techniques. ACTH, cortisol, TSH, vasopressin, and oxytocin will be measured in plasma samples. Free thyroxine, GH, IGF-I, LH, FSH, total testosterone, and PRL will be measured in serum samples. Performance of this sub-task will be completed during months four through six (Q2) of the study duration. This sub-task does not employ any human tissue or biological fluids or any other use of human subjects and does not require IRB approval. This is a test of assay performance only.

b) procurement of banked plasma and serum samples previously obtained from 100 selected male community control subjects between the ages of 21 and 50 with a body mass index (BMI) less than 34. All samples to be analyzed will be samples banked in a regulated repository; no direct sampling of biological fluids from human participants will be employed in this study. Banked samples will NOT be obtained prior to IRB and HRPO approvals. This subtask will require only a very short period of time and is expected to be completed by the end of the Q2.

Status of Task 2: Procurement of samples has been completed for 59 of the target sample of 100.

Task 3: Performance of assays of all 12 hormones listed above on plasma or serum samples from the 100 selected male community control subjects, tabulation and statistical analysis of all assay results, and use of those analyses to determine ranges of normal concentrations of each hormone to establish diagnostic criteria for individual hormone deficiencies. ACTH, cortisol, TSH, vasopressin, and oxytocin will be measured in plasma samples. Free thyroxine, GH, IGF-I, LH, FSH, total testosterone, and PRL will be measured in serum samples. Identification of pituitary hormone deficiencies will be based upon measurement of hormone values below the normative ranges established with assays of samples from community control subjects. Performance of this task will be completed during months 7-10 of the study (Q3).

Status of Task 3: Hormone assays and identification of deficiencies have been completed for samples from all 59 community control subjects that have been procured.

All tasks addressing Specific Aim 1 were initially scheduled for completion by the end of Q3.

Specific Aim 2: Measurement of basal concentrations of the 12 pituitary and target-organ hormones described above in banked plasma/serum samples from 40 male Veterans of OIF/OEF exposed to blast concussion mTBI – the mTBI group – and banked samples from a second group of 20 male OIF/OEF Veterans without blast concussion mTBI or PTSD – the deployment control (DC) group. Pituitary deficiencies and occurrence of hypopituitarism in individual subjects and for each of the two subject

groups will be tabulated to describe the frequency and specific pituitary deficits consequent to blast mTBI.

Task 4: Performance of assays, as described above on banked samples from 100 community control subjects, of ACTH, cortisol, TSH, free thyroxine, GH, IGF-I, LH, FSH, total testosterone, PRL, vasopressin, and oxytocin in plasma/serum samples from 40 mTBI and 20 DC subjects followed by tabulation and analysis of the data. Task 4 will be completed by the end of Q4.

Status of Task 4: Performance of all assays and tabulation and analysis of all data have been completed for 26 mTBI and 7 deployment control subjects.

Task 5: Determine the individual hormone deficiencies and the probable incidence of hypopituitarism in each Veteran and in each of the two Veteran groups (mTBI and DC) by:

- a) using criteria derived from community control normative data to identify individual hormone deficiencies in each of the 60 Veteran subjects (40 mTBI and 20 DC). For each of the 12 hormones, a measured value that falls in the lowest 5 percentile of the community control group will be defined as a hormone deficiency.
- b) identify the existence of probable hypopituitarism in each subject. Hypopituitarism will be defined as deficiencies indicating dysfunction in any one of the following pituitary hormone/target hormone systems: ACTH/cortisol; TSH/thyroxine; GH/IGF-I; LH/FSH/testosterone; PRL; vasopressin; and oxytocin.
- c) using the data from individual subjects, determine the incidence of each specific hormone deficiency in the mTBI group and in the DC group. Based on the definition of hypopituitarism above (in the description of Task 5b) determine the incidence of hypopituitarism in each of the Veteran groups. Statistically analyze the group data to identify possible significant differences in pituitary dysfunction between the two groups.

Status of Task 5: A. Completed for all participants from whom samples have been procured.

B. Eleven presentations of data from performance of Tasks 1-5 have been made (see REPORTABLE OUTCOMES, p. 13)

C. Results based on performance of Tasks 1-5 have been published (see Appendix 1, p. 17): *Front Neurol* 3:11, 2012. Published online 2012 February 7. Prepublished online 2011 December 27.

doi: [10.3389/fneur.2012.00011](https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2012.00011) PMID: PMC3273706

(<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3273706/?tool=pubmed>)

All tasks addressing Specific Aim 2 were initially scheduled for completion by the end of Q5.

Summary of Results for Tasks 1-5: Using our comparison criteria, we have found that 11 of 26, or 42%, of the Veterans with blast mTBI were found to have one or more pituitary hormone abnormalities. Five Veterans with mTBI were found to have apparent growth hormone deficiency, three were hypogonadal, and two had abnormal prolactin levels. There were also four mTBI participants with abnormal vasopressin concentrations and four with oxytocin deficiencies. Five of the mTBI Veterans were found with multiple hormonal abnormalities. None of the non-blast-exposed deployment control subjects were found to have any hormonal insufficiencies.

Specific Aim 3: Refer individuals provisionally identified with pituitary deficits for more extensive diagnostic tests and treatment, use those clinical data to further refine and validate the hormonal screening criteria, and determine predictive accuracy of the final screening method.

Task 6: Veteran subjects provisionally identified with pituitary dysfunction will be referred to physicians specializing in endocrinology for further clinical evaluation, diagnosis, and treatment, and results from clinical evaluations will be used to refine the cutoff criteria provided by the hormone assays. Based on the refined criteria, group data will be re-evaluated to determine specific differences related to blast mTBI, and receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis will be used to assess the predictive accuracy of the hormone screening method.

Status of Task 6: Work will begin in Q5.

All tasks addressing Specific Aim 3 were initially scheduled for completion by the end of Q6.

Problems in Accomplishing the Tasks

The only problem has been the lack of availability of a sufficient number of appropriate blood samples in the repository from which our samples are drawn. This study is dependent on the repository for samples, demographic information, and screening data. The problem stemmed from a temporary cessation of subject recruitment for the large mTBI imaging study that generates the samples in the repository. The delay was caused by the necessity for major revision of the IRB application for the imaging study. Approval has now been obtained from both the VA Puget Sound Health Care System IRB and the University of Washington IRB. Successful recruitment for the imaging study is now under way, and additional samples are now accessible by us. Sufficient samples will now be available to complete the study as proposed. We anticipate no additional problems.

Results to Date

The results of the study to date and their interpretation are described fully in the appended publication in *Frontiers in Neurology* (Appendix 1, p. 17). The abstract together with six graphs that were not included in the publication are shown below.

Studies of traumatic brain injury from impact have found evidence of chronic hypopituitarism, defined by deficient production of one or more pituitary hormones at least one year after injury, in 25–50% of cases. Most studies found the occurrence of posttraumatic hypopituitarism (PTHP) to be unrelated to injury severity. Growth hormone deficiency (GHD) and hypogonadism were reported most frequently. Hypopituitarism, and in particular adult GHD, is associated with symptoms that resemble those of PTSD, including fatigue, anxiety, depression, irritability, insomnia, sexual dysfunction, cognitive deficiencies, and decreased quality of life. However, the prevalence of PTHP after blast-related mild TBI (mTBI), an extremely common injury in modern military operations, has not been characterized. We measured concentrations of 12 pituitary and target-organ hormones in two groups of male US Veterans of combat in Iraq or Afghanistan. One group consisted of participants with blast-related mTBI whose last blast exposure was at least one year prior to the study. The other consisted of Veterans with similar military deployment histories but without blast exposure. Eleven of 26, or 42% of participants with blast concussions were found to have abnormal hormone levels in one or more pituitary axes, a prevalence similar to that found after other forms of TBI. Five members of the mTBI group were found with markedly low age-adjusted insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I) levels indicative of probable GHD, and three had testosterone and gonadotropin concentrations consistent with hypogonadism. If symptoms characteristic of both PTHP and PTSD can be linked to pituitary dysfunction, they may be amenable to treatment with hormone replacement. Routine screening for chronic hypopituitarism after blast concussion shows promise for appropriately directing diagnostic and therapeutic decisions that otherwise may remain unconsidered and for markedly facilitating recovery and rehabilitation.

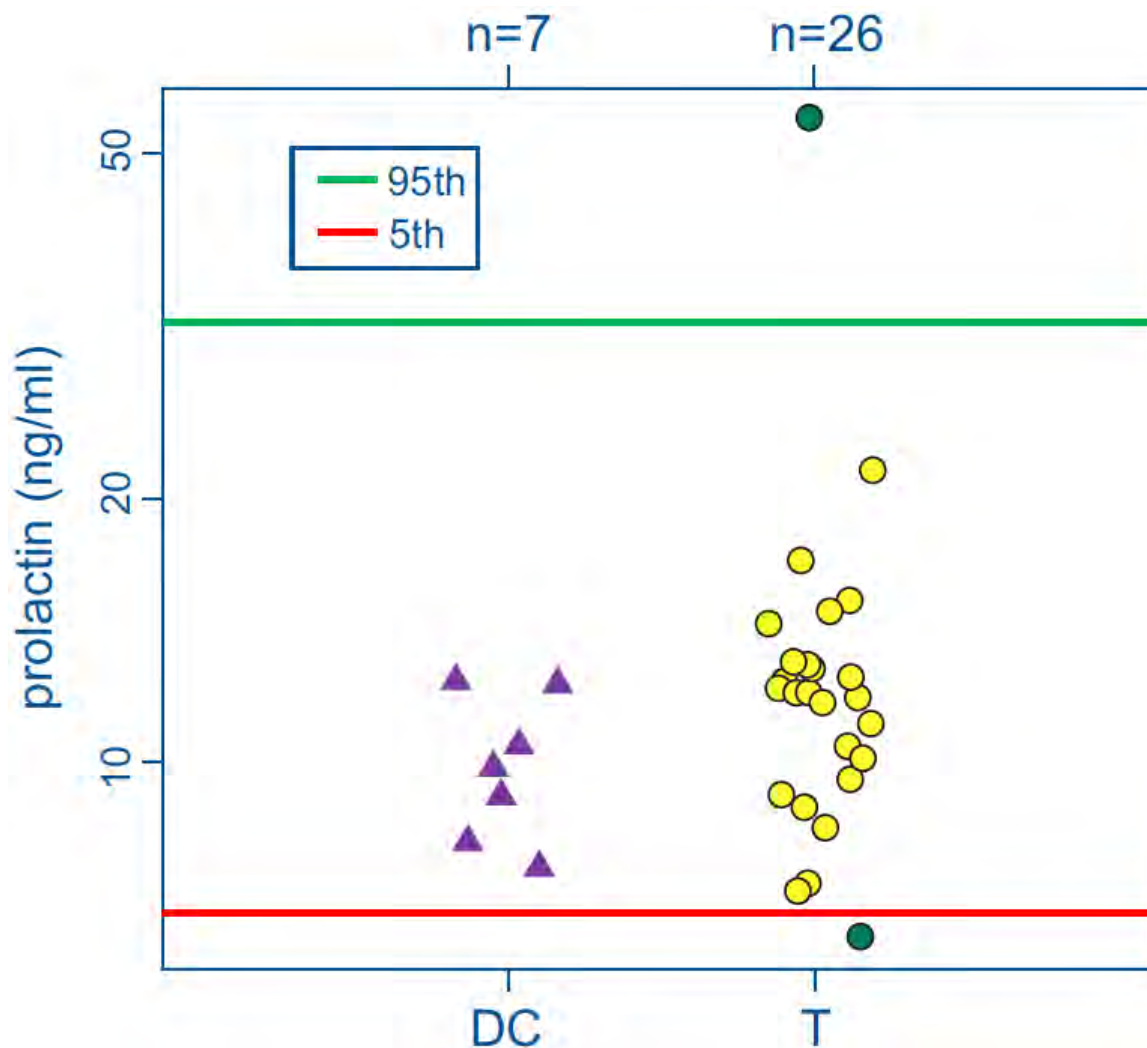


Figure 1. Both hypoprolactinemia and hyperprolactinemia are associated with sexual and reproductive dysfunction including erectile dysfunction and infertility. Data from the deployment control (DC) group are indicated on the left by purple triangles, and mTBI group data are shown by yellow circles on the right. Serum prolactin levels above the 95th percentile of the distribution of prolactin concentrations in our community control reference group were considered to be aberrant and indicative of hyperprolactinemia. Similarly, values below the 5th percentile of the distribution of prolactin concentrations in our reference sample were considered to be markers of hypoprolactinemia. None of the Veterans in the DC group were found with abnormal prolactin levels. However, one participant in the mTBI group had a prolactin value considered to abnormally low and one had an excessively high prolactin level. Data from these two Veterans are indicated by the green circles. The same two participants were also found to have probable hypogonadism as determined by our criteria based upon luteinizing hormone and testosterone concentrations (see *Frontiers in Neurology* publication in Appendix 1, p. 17).

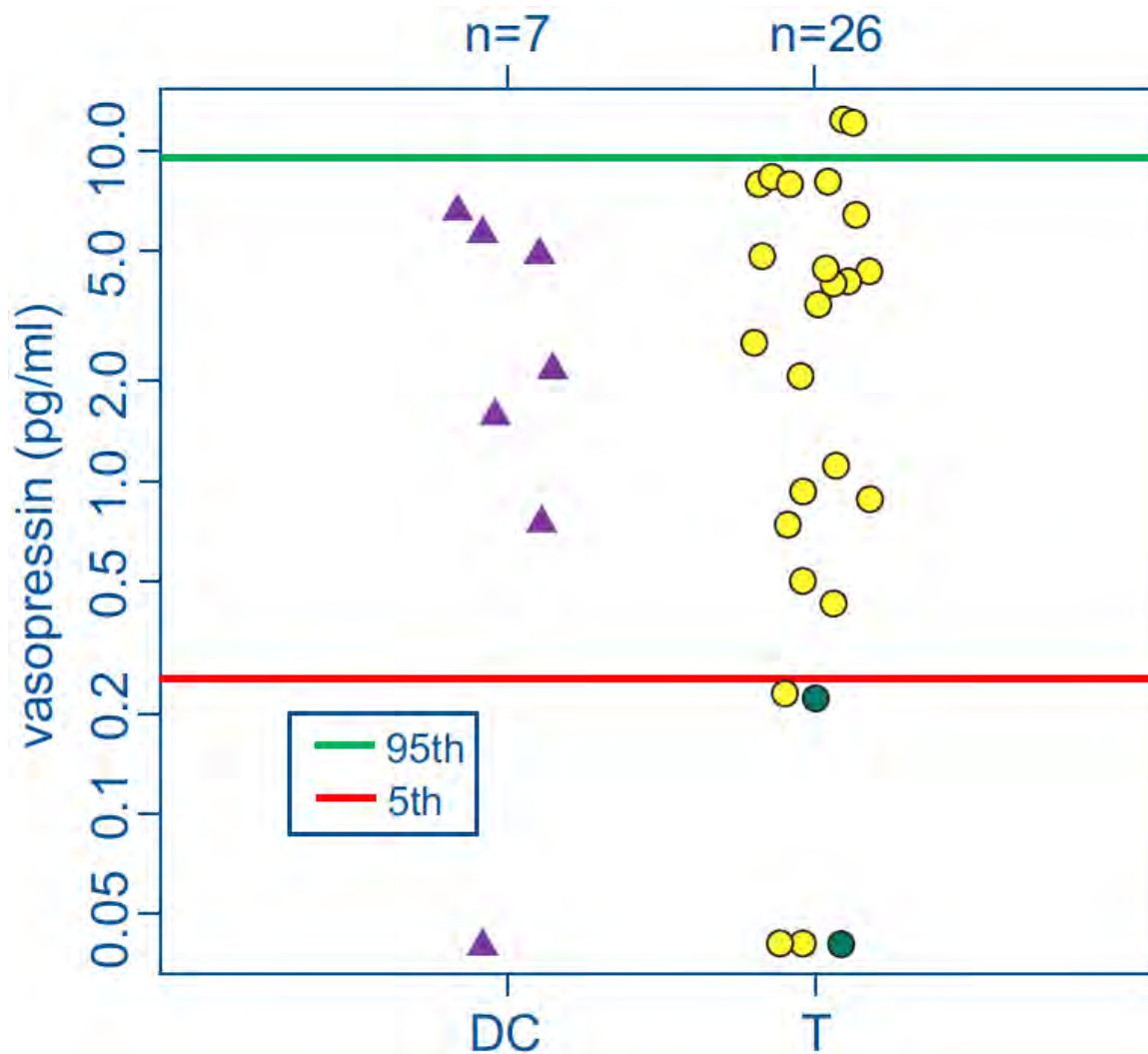


Figure 2. Similarly to the case with prolactin, both abnormally low and abnormally high levels of plasma vasopressin (antidiuretic hormone) are associated with serious medical conditions. Low levels (diabetes insipidus, DI) result in excessive thirst, excretion of large amounts of severely diluted urine, and potential dehydration. Abnormally high concentrations (syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone hypersecretion, SIADH) result in water retention and excess excretion of sodium. Elevated vasopressin concentrations in animals and humans have been linked to anxiety, depression, and aggression, and high plasma and/or CSF levels have been associated with personality disorder, depression, obsessive-compulsive disorder, schizophrenia, and PTSD. Data for each of the two subject groups are presented as in Figure 1. Our criterion for excessive vasopressin concentration was a level above the 95th percentile of our reference sample. Functional vasopressin deficiency was defined as a vasopressin concentration below the 5th percentile together with very dilute urine (urine specific gravity less than 1.003). Two of the mTBI group met our criterion for excessive vasopressin secretion, and two of the same group, indicated by the green circles, met both criteria for functional vasopressin deficiency (low vasopressin together with severely diluted urine). None of the deployment control group was found to have abnormal plasma prolactin levels.

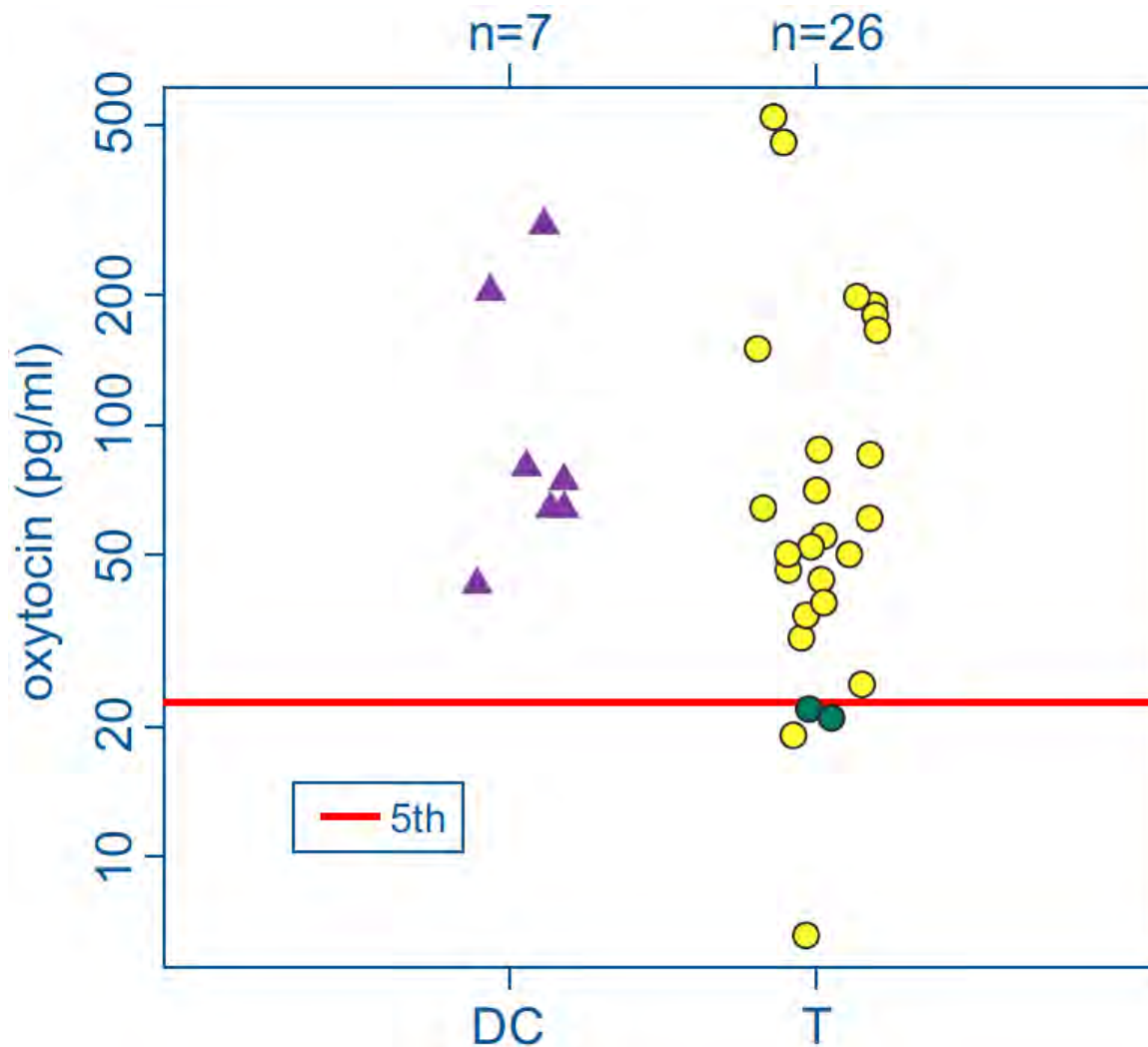


Figure 3. Oxytocin has been shown to play a role in multiple aspects of maternal, social, and romantic bonding and to have significant anxiolytic and anti-stress effects on social approach behavior and in socially challenging situations. It has also been linked to promotion of social recognition and interpretation of social signals. Extremely low concentrations of oxytocin have been linked to mental disorders characterized by severe social disturbances such as autism. None of the Veterans in the deployment control group, but four members of the mTBI group met our sub-5th-percentile criterion for oxytocin deficiency. The two subjects whose data are marked by green circles were those who were also found to have a functional vasopressin deficiency. The occurrence of deficiencies of both of these posterior pituitary hormones in the same individual suggest the possibility of disruption of the axons that carry these hormones through the pituitary stalk prior to release into the circulation.

Subj.	LH	FSH	tTest	PRL	IGF-I	AVP	OT
	mIU/ml	U/L	ng/dl	ng/ml	ng/ml	pg/ml	pg/ml
T-2	2.03	---	669	9.6	185	12.3	181
T-4	2.03	2.06	252	54.9	110	8.0	88
T-8	2.72	4.02	401	11.9	141	0.2	44
T-10	1.97	2.43	520	12.3	230	0.2	22
T-12	7.27	5.70	715	13.0	198	12.0	55
T-13	1.92	1.18	253	6.3	187	6.4	50
T-14	2.66	2.51	390	12.0	151	0.5	19
T-16	2.64	4.01	380	21.5	126	0.9	190
T-21	4.00	4.48	588	12.8	227	0.0	21
T-23	2.24	4.34	463	7.2	146	2.1	25
T-26	2.11	2.64	264	15.3	86	8.4	0

Table 1. The table shows the hormone concentrations of the 11 of 26 Veterans with blast-induced mTBI who were found to have aberrant levels of one or more hormones. Five participants were found to have IGF-I concentrations consistent with growth hormone deficiency. Three of the mTBI group had luteinizing hormone and testosterone levels indicative of hypogonadism. Of these three, two had extremely low IGF-I levels, two had aberrant prolactin concentrations, and one had an unmeasurably low oxytocin level. In light of the fact that none of the deployment control subjects (although as yet, a small group) were found with abnormal levels of any of the hormones measured, we feel that our data strongly suggest that blast-induced mTBI carries a high risk for chronic pituitary dysfunction. (Please see Appendix 1, p. 17 for more detail and interpretation.)

KEY RESEARCH ACCOMPLISHMENTS:

- Establishment of normative concentration ranges for 12 pituitary and target-organ hormones using blood samples from a healthy community control group
- Measurement of basal levels of these hormones in two experimental groups: 1. Male combat Veterans of deployment to Iraq and/or Afghanistan with blast-related mTBI; 2. Male combat Veterans of deployment to Iraq and/or Afghanistan without blast exposure or PTSD
- Determination of hormonal abnormalities in the two Veteran groups by comparison with the reference ranges established from the community control group data
- Comparison of the prevalence of pituitary dysfunction in the two groups of Veterans
- Finding that 42% of the mTBI group and none of the deployment control group had significant hormone abnormalities
- Conclusion that blast concussion carries a high risk for chronic pituitary dysfunction, the symptoms of which include fatigue, mood disturbances, anxiety and depression, irritability,

insomnia, memory loss, social isolation, and decreased quality of life. Muscular weakness, erectile dysfunction, infertility, deleterious effects on body composition, and diminished cardiovascular function are also frequent consequences.

REPORTABLE OUTCOMES:

Oral and Poster Presentation and Abstracts

1. “Chronic hypopituitarism after blast concussion mild traumatic brain injury in Iraq/Afghanistan combat Veterans.” Charles W Wilkinson, Elaine R Peskind, Elizabeth A Colasurdo, and Jane B Shofer. Oral Presentation: 93rd Annual Meeting & Expo of The Endocrine Society, Boston Convention & Exhibition Center, Boston, MA, June 4-7, 2011.

Abstract published in *Endocrine Reviews* **32** (03_MeetingAbstracts): OR16-4, 2011 (Appendix 2, p. 29) http://edrv.endojournals.org/cgi/content/meeting_abstract/32/03_MeetingAbstracts/OR16-4?sid=611ee69b-229e-4ea6-8d33-6f794557b3b7

2. “Pituitary dysfunction after traumatic brain injury (TBI): relevance for psychological health and rehabilitation.” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation, Case Conference: Butler Hospital, Warren Alpert Medical School of Brown University, Providence, RI, June 10, 2011.

3. “Pituitary dysfunction in OIF/OEF Veterans with repetitive blast mild traumatic brain injury.” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation in Symposium: Structural and Functional Neuroimaging, Pituitary Dysfunction, and Animal Modeling in Blast Concussion Mild Traumatic Brain Injury. Elaine R. Peskind, Rajendra Morey, Charles W. Wilkinson, and David G. Cook. 3rd Federal Interagency Conference on Traumatic Brain Injury, Washington Hilton, Washington, DC, June 13-15, 2011.

4. “Blast concussion mTBI, hypopituitarism, and psychological health in OIF/OEF Veterans.” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation: Military Operational Medicine Research Program (MOMRP)/Joint Program Committee for Military Operational Medicine (JPC5) In Progress Review (IPR), Hilton Garden Inn, Frederick, MD, July 27, 2011.

5. “Pituitary dysfunction after blast concussion: relevance for psychological health and rehabilitation.” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation: National Intrepid Center of Excellence (NICoE) Grand Rounds, NICoE, National Naval Medical Center, Bethesda, MD, July 28, 2011.

6. “Chronic pituitary dysfunction after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury.” Charles W. Wilkinson, Elaine R. Peskind, Elizabeth A. Colasurdo, Kathleen F. Pagulayan, and Jane B. Shofer. Poster

Presentation: American College of Neuropsychopharmacology (ACNP) 50th Annual Meeting, Hilton Waikoloa Village, Waikoloa, HI, December 4-8, 2011.

Abstract published in *Neuropsychopharmacology* **36**:S407–S408, 2011 (Appendix 3, p. 30)

<http://www.nature.com/npp/journal/v36/n1s/full/npp2011293a.html>

7. “Chronic pituitary dysfunction associated with cognitive and neuropsychiatric deficits after blast-related concussion.” Charles W. Wilkinson, Kathleen F. Pagulayan, Jane B. Shofer, and Elaine R. Peskind. Poster Presentation: 22nd Pacific Coast Brain Injury Conference, Sheraton Vancouver Wall Centre, Vancouver, BC, Canada, February 15-17, 2012.

8. “Prevalence and characteristics of chronic pituitary dysfunction after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury.” Charles W. Wilkinson, Elaine R. Peskind, Elizabeth A. Colasurdo, Kathleen F. Pagulayan, and Jane B. Shofer. Oral Presentation: Ninth World Congress on Brain Injury, Edinburgh International Conference Centre, Edinburgh, Scotland, March 21-25, 2012.

Abstract published in *Brain Injury* **26**:732 (Appendix 4, p. 31)

<http://informahealthcare.com/doi/pdf/10.3109/02699052.2012.660091>

9. “Chronic pituitary hormone abnormalities after blast-induced mild traumatic brain injury in combat Veterans: a psychiatric concern?” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation, Grand Rounds: University of Washington Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Harborview Medical Center, Seattle, WA, April 6, 2012.

10. “Hormonal abnormalities after blast concussion in Veterans: implications for quality of life.” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation in Symposium: Overview of VA/UW Blast-related Traumatic Brain Injury Research Program. Lance Stewart, Elaine R. Peskind, Charles W. Wilkinson, and David G. Cook. VA Puget Sound Health Care System, Seattle, WA, April 9, 2012.

11. “Hormonal abnormalities after blast concussion in Veterans: implications for quality of life.” Charles W. Wilkinson. Oral Presentation, Research Seminar: Geriatric Research, Education and Clinical Center, VA Puget Sound Health Care System, Seattle, WA, April 9, 2012.

Peer-reviewed Publication

“High prevalence of chronic pituitary and target-organ hormone abnormalities after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury.” Charles W. Wilkinson, Kathleen F. Pagulayan, Eric C. Petrie, Cynthia L. Mayer, Elizabeth A. Colasurdo, Jane B. Shofer, Kim L. Hart, David Hoff, Matthew A. Tarabochia, and

Elaine R. Peskind. *Front Neurol* 3:11, 2012. Published online 2012 February 7. Prepublished online 2011 December 27. doi: [10.3389/fneur.2012.00011](https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2012.00011) PMCID: PMC3273706 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3273706/?tool=pubmed>)

Funding Applied for and Received Based on Work Supported by this Award

VA Rehabilitation Research & Development Merit Review Award.

Application Number: 1I01RX000509-01A1.

Principal Investigator: Charles W. Wilkinson, PhD

Project Title: Pituitary dysfunction, behavioral symptoms, and quality of life after blast mTBI.

Period: April 1, 2012- March 31, 2016.

Coordination with Other Organizations Conducting Related Work

In October, 2011, I was contacted by Therese West, a member of the Defense Centers of Excellence (DCoE) TBI Clinical Standards of Care Directorate. The Directorate was preparing a treatment algorithm and Clinical Practice Recommendation for primary care physicians in the MHS to educate and recommend screening for endocrine dysfunction following mild TBI. Ms. West requested that I review the final draft of the Clinical Practice Recommendation and Pocket Guide for Primary Care Practitioners (PCP). My review was completed and submitted to the DCoE. The PCP and Clinical Practice Recommendation are currently in the final stages of preparation for public release. Our publication in *Frontiers of Neurology* (Appendix 1, p 17) resulting from the current project is cited in the final Clinical Practice Recommendation.

CONCLUSION:

In this preliminary study, 42% of participants with blast mTBI showed evidence of posttraumatic hypopituitarism (PTHP) as determined by basal hormone measurements. The prevalence of hypopituitarism from all causes in the general population has been estimated at 300 cases per million, or 0.03%. PTHP is associated with symptoms easily mistaken for those of PTSD including fatigue, mood disturbances, anxiety and depression, irritability, insomnia, memory loss, social isolation, and decreased quality of life. Muscular weakness, erectile dysfunction, infertility, deleterious effects on body composition, and diminished cardiovascular function are also frequent consequences. These symptoms, if they result from PTSD, are often resistant to successful treatment. However, if some or all of the symptoms are indeed of neuroendocrine origin and are appropriately diagnosed as consequences of PTHP, they can be treated successfully with hormone replacement. Therefore, failure to consider the diagnosis of PTHP may result in inappropriate and ineffective treatment of the symptoms.

In light of the fact that PTHP is associated with a constellation of symptoms and diminished quality of life similar to PTSD, these findings support the value of routine screening for pituitary dysfunction after blast concussion. Neuroendocrine screening shows promise for:

- a. identifying those individuals whose symptoms are of neuroendocrine origin,
- b. directing diagnostic and therapeutic strategies that might otherwise remain unconsidered,
- c. and markedly facilitating recovery and rehabilitation after blast-induced, and other forms, of traumatic brain injury.

The “so what” is that – IF the symptoms of a number approximating our preliminary figure of 42% of warriors who sustain a blast concussion are due to neuroendocrine dysfunction – hundreds of thousands may be spared a lifetime of serious psychological and physiological disability if routine hormonal screening after blast mTBI becomes standard procedure. Such a practice also holds the possibility of redirecting millions of dollars from potentially ineffective treatments toward other interventions that may improve the psychological and physical health of many more warriors and Veterans.

REFERENCES:

All relevant references are included in the Reference section of the manuscript in Appendix 1 (p. 17), which begins on p. 25.

APPENDICES:

Appendix 1: *Frontiers in Neurology* article, “High prevalence of chronic pituitary and target-organ hormone abnormalities after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury.” (Page 17.)

Appendix 2: *Endocrine Reviews* abstract, “Chronic hypopituitarism after blast concussion mild traumatic brain injury in Iraq/Afghanistan combat Veterans.” (Page 29.)

Appendix 3: *Neuropsychopharmacology* abstract, “Chronic pituitary dysfunction after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury.” (Page 30.)

Appendix 4: *Brain Injury* abstract, “Prevalence and characteristics of chronic pituitary dysfunction after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury.” (Page 32.)



High prevalence of chronic pituitary and target-organ hormone abnormalities after blast-related mild traumatic brain injury

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Studies of traumatic brain injury from all causes have found evidence of chronic hypopituitarism, defined by deficient production of one or more pituitary hormones at least 1 year after injury, in 25–50% of cases. Most studies found the occurrence of posttraumatic hypopituitarism (PTHP) to be unrelated to injury severity. Growth hormone deficiency (GHD) and hypogonadism were reported most frequently. Hypopituitarism, and in particular adult GHD, is associated with symptoms that resemble those of PTSD, including fatigue, anxiety, depression, irritability, insomnia, sexual dysfunction, cognitive deficiencies, and decreased quality of life. However, the prevalence of PTHP after blast-related mild TBI (mTBI), an extremely common injury in modern military operations, has not been characterized. We measured concentrations of 12 pituitary and target-organ hormones in two groups of male US Veterans of combat in Iraq or Afghanistan. One group consisted of participants with blast-related mTBI whose last blast exposure was at least 1 year prior to the study. The other consisted of Veterans with similar military deployment histories but without blast exposure. Eleven of 26, or 42% of participants with blast concussions were found to have abnormal hormone levels in one or more pituitary axes, a prevalence similar to that found in other forms of TBI. Five members of the mTBI group were found with markedly low age-adjusted insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I) levels indicative of probable GHD, and three had testosterone and gonadotropin concentrations consistent with hypogonadism. If symptoms characteristic of both PTHP and PTSD can be linked to pituitary dysfunction, they may be amenable to treatment with hormone replacement. Routine screening for chronic hypopituitarism after blast concussion shows promise for appropriately directing diagnostic and therapeutic decisions that otherwise may remain unconsidered and for markedly facilitating recovery and rehabilitation.

Keywords: traumatic brain injury, hypopituitarism, blast, concussion, growth hormone, pituitary

INTRODUCTION

Recent studies investigating chronic pituitary dysfunction resulting from TBI have reported a prevalence of posttraumatic hypopituitarism (PTHP) ranging from 5 to 95% with a median of 35%, the variation being primarily due to differences in screening criteria (Bavisetty et al., 2008; Srinivasan et al., 2009; Berg et al., 2010; Englander et al., 2010; High et al., 2010; Kokshoorn et al., 2010, 2011; Krahulik et al., 2010; Park et al., 2010; Pavlovic et al., 2010; Reimunde et al., 2011; Schneider et al., 2011). Pituitary hormone disorders are frequently among the immediate consequences of TBI; some resolve during the following months while a smaller proportion of new dysfunctions emerge (Agha et al., 2005; Aimaretti et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2006, 2011; Tanriverdi et al., 2006, 2008b; Klose et al., 2007; Krahulik et al., 2010). By ~6 months subsequent to TBI, the pattern of pituitary deficits is considered to be relatively permanent.

The risk factors and the mechanisms, other than immediate trauma-induced tissue damage and subsequent edema, for chronic hypothalamo-pituitary dysfunction due to TBI are unclear. Roles for polymorphisms in apolipoprotein E genotype (*APOE*), inflammatory processes – both systemic and neural, and anti-hypothalamic (AHAs) and anti-pituitary antibodies (APAs) have been proposed, and each has empirical support.

There is evidence that the apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$ genotype may be associated with a reduced risk of TBI-related hypopituitarism. *APOE* $\epsilon 3$ is the most common of the three alleles and is found in more than half of the general population. The $\epsilon 2$ and $\epsilon 4$ alleles have been associated with altered risks for Alzheimer's disease, hyperlipoproteinemia, and atherosclerosis. Pituitary dysfunction in patients with TBI has been found to be significantly less prevalent in individuals with the *APOE* $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$ genotype (17.7%)

than in patients with other genotypes (41.9%; $p = 0.01$; Tanriverdi et al., 2008a).

Evidence for the involvement of APAs and/or AHAs in the development of chronic PTHP comes from two studies. APAs were detected in 44.8% of patients who had completed a 3-year-follow-up after TBI and in none of the healthy control subjects, and the prevalence of hypopituitarism was significantly higher in APA-positive (46.2%) than APA-negative TBI patients (12.5%; $p = 0.04$; Tanriverdi et al., 2008b). In another study of active and retired boxers, AHAs were detected in 21.3% and APAs in 22.9% of boxers, whereas no evidence of APAs or AHAs was found in control subjects (Tanriverdi et al., 2010a).

It is well established that TBI results in the acute induction of both neural and systemic inflammatory responses and consequent anti-inflammatory counter-responses (Lu et al., 2009; Ziebell and Morganti-Kossmann, 2010). In addition, animal studies provide evidence of the development of a chronic inflammatory state after TBI. Three months after moderate focal brain injury in rats, persistent major histocompatibility complex (MHC)-II up-regulation, mononuclear phagocytosis, and elevated interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) synthesis were observed in large areas of the ipsilateral hemisphere (Holmin and Mathiesen, 1999). In another study, 2 months after cortical contusion injury to the medial frontal cortex of rats, IL-1 β was significantly increased in the cortex and hypothalamus compared with a sham-trauma group, and glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) was elevated in the cortex, hypothalamus, and anterior pituitary of the TBI group (Kasturi and Stein, 2009).

In general, the frequency of occurrence of pituitary hormone abnormalities has not been found to be related to the severity of the trauma (Lieberman et al., 2001; Agha et al., 2004a; Aimaretti et al., 2004, 2005; Bondanelli et al., 2004; Schneider et al., 2006; Park et al., 2010; Kokshoorn et al., 2011), although there have been reports of a positive relationship (Kelly et al., 2000; Klose et al., 2007). Of the traumatic brain injuries sustained by ~ 1.7 million Americans annually (Faul et al., 2010), 75% are considered mild TBI (mTBI; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003).

Mild TBI is defined by the American Congress of Rehabilitation Medicine (ACRM) as a head trauma resulting in any one of the following: loss of consciousness (LOC) for 30 min or less, alteration of mental state for up to 24 h (being dazed, confused, disoriented, etc.), or loss of memory for events immediately before or after the trauma (American Congress of Rehabilitation Medicine, 1993). The terms mTBI and concussion are frequently used interchangeably (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003; Department of Veterans Affairs/Department of Defense, 2009).

Mild TBI-related chronic pituitary dysfunction has been reported in boxers and kick boxers subjected to repetitive head injuries. In a preliminary study, 45% of professional boxers were found with apparent growth hormone deficiency (GHD), but no other pituitary hormone deficiencies were observed (Kelestimur et al., 2004). In a larger study of active and retired boxers 18% had pituitary hormone deficiencies in one or more axes (Tanriverdi et al., 2008c). An investigation of pituitary dysfunction in amateur kick boxers revealed GH and/or adrenocorticotropin (ACTH) deficiencies in 27.3% of the athletes (Tanriverdi et al., 2007).

In 2010, the injuries in 80% of over 30,000 U.S. military service members medically diagnosed with TBI were classified as

mTBI (Military Health System, 2011), and mTBI sustained from explosive blasts is one of the most common combat injuries resulting from deployment to Iraq or Afghanistan. About 10–20% of returnees report having experienced at least one blast concussion (Tanielian et al., 2008; Terrio et al., 2009).

The extensive documentation of the high prevalence of hypopituitarism after TBI from all causes and the absence of any published studies of the frequency of PTHP after blast-related mTBI provided the rationale for this investigation of hypopituitarism in U.S. Veterans of combat in Iraq and/or Afghanistan who have experienced at least one blast concussion.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

PARTICIPANTS AND SAMPLE ACQUISITION

The VA Puget Sound Health Care System (VAPSHCS) Institutional Review Board and the U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command (USAMRMC) Office of Research Protections (ORP) Human Research Protection Office (HRPO) approved the subject protocol with a waiver of informed consent. All plasma and serum samples, demographic, and blast exposure data were obtained from an established biorepository entitled “Alzheimer’s Disease Research Center (ADRC) Participant Registry and Sample Repository.” All subjects whose samples were utilized had consented to have their samples and data used in future research of this type.

The mTBI Veteran participants (T group) whose samples were obtained from the repository were a convenience sample of 26 male Veterans recruited from VAPSHCS, all of whom had documented hazardous duty experience in Iraq and/or Afghanistan with the U.S. Armed Forces and had reported experiencing at least one blast exposure in the war zone that resulted in acute mTBI as defined by ACRM criteria (American Congress of Rehabilitation Medicine, 1993) except that Glasgow Coma Scale scores were not obtained in the combat setting. Samples from the repository were also collected from seven male Veterans who had been deployed to Iraq and/or Afghanistan but who had not been exposed to blast and had no history of TBI. These individuals made up the deployment control (DC) group.

Additional samples from the repository which were used to establish normal hormonal reference ranges had been collected from 59 cognitively normal male community volunteers recruited from the ADRC, all of whom were medically healthy and had Mini-Mental State Examination scores of 29.4 ± 1.0 (mean \pm SEM; range 27–30); Clinical Dementia Rating scores of zero; no evidence or history of cognitive or functional decline; and no history of blast exposure or head injury. These samples were used only for the establishment of normative hormone concentrations with our assay methods. Resting blood samples had been collected from all participants between 9:00 and 10:00 a.m., at least 30 min after the insertion of an intravenous catheter in an antecubital vein.

None of the Veteran or community control participants had a history of blast exposure, head injury with LOC greater than 30 min; penetrating head wound; seizure disorder; insulin-dependent diabetes; current or past DSM-IV diagnoses of schizophrenia, other psychotic disorders, bipolar disorder, or dementia; or a DSM-IV diagnosis of alcohol or other substance abuse or dependence within the previous 3 months. Participants using medications likely to affect brain function, such as opioids,

benzodiazepines, or anti-depressants, were asked not to take those medications for 24 h prior to blood sampling.

BLAST EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT

Blast exposure and mTBI histories had been obtained from mTBI Veteran participants during a clinical interview in which specific inquiries were made regarding total number of blast exposures accompanied by acute symptoms of TBI and/or LOC in Iraq and/or Afghanistan and lifetime history of non-blast exposure head injuries accompanied by acute symptoms of TBI and/or LOC (e.g., sports or motor vehicle accident-related concussion).

NEUROLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

All subjects underwent a full neurological examination, including the Unified Parkinson’s Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) motor section (Martínez-Martín et al., 1994). Olfactory function was assessed using the Brief Smell Identification Test (B-SIT; Doty et al., 1996).

HORMONE MEASUREMENT

Blood samples for the measurement of plasma hormone concentrations were collected between 9:00 and 10:00 a.m. in chilled tubes containing ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), placed on ice, and centrifuged at 4°C prior to removal of the plasma fraction. Blood samples for measurement of serum hormones were

collected in serum-separator tubes, allowed to clot at room temperature for 10 min, and centrifuged to isolate serum. Serum and plasma samples were aliquoted and stored at –70°C. Twelve pituitary or target-organ hormones were measured in these samples. The type, source, and performance characteristics of the assay kits used for the measurement of hormone concentrations in serum and plasma are shown in Table 1. ACTH, cortisol, thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), oxytocin, and vasopressin concentrations were determined in plasma; free thyroxine, luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), total testosterone, insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I), growth hormone, and prolactin were measured in serum.

CLINICAL LAB DATA

Measurements of plasma and urine osmolality were not available but urine specific gravity was measured and used as a criterion to determine functional vasopressin insufficiency.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND CRITERIA FOR PITUITARY DEFICIENCIES

The criteria for PTHP, derived using hormone measurements from the 59 community control participants are shown in Table 2. For each hormone, age-adjusted percentiles based on the lognormal distribution from community control participants were estimated and dysfunction in each of seven hormonal axes was defined (R Development Core Team, 2011). Hypopituitarism was defined as a dysfunction in at least one of these seven axes. These criteria were

Table 1 | Sources and characteristics of hormone assay kits.

Assay	Kit name		Manufacturer		Location			
ACTH	ACTH Immunoradiometric (IRMA) Assay		Scantibodies Laboratory		Santee, CA, USA			
Cortisol	GammaCoat™Cortisol ¹²⁵ I RIA		Diasorin		Stillwater, MN, USA			
FSH	DELPHIA hFSH		Perkin Elmer		Waltham, MA, USA			
GH	hGH-ELISA, Ultra-Sensitive		DSL		Webster, TX, USA			
IGF-I	IGF-I RIA		IBL America		Minneapolis, MN, USA			
LH	ImmuChem™Coated Tube LH ¹²⁵ I RIA		MP Biomedicals		Costa Mesa, CA, USA			
Oxytocin	Oxytocin EIA Kit – Extraction-free		Peninsula Labs/Bachem		San Carlos, CA, USA			
Prolactin	ImmuChem™Coated Tube Prolactin ¹²⁵ I IRMA		MP Biomedicals		Costa Mesa, CA, USA			
Testosterone	Total Testosterone		Siemens Diagnostics		Los Angeles, CA, USA			
Thyroxine	Free Thyroxine (FT ₄) Microplate EIA		MP Biomedicals		Costa Mesa, CA, USA			
TSH	ImmuChem™Coated Tube TSH ¹²⁵ I IRMA		MP Biomedicals		Costa Mesa, CA, USA			
Vasopressin	Vasopressin Direct RIA		ALPCO		Salem, NH, USA			

Hormones	Assay type	Sample type	Assay size	Sample size	Assay range	Sensitivity	Intra-assay CV	Inter-assay CV
ACTH	IRMA	Plasma	100 Tubes	200 µl	9–1693 pg/ml	<1.0 pg/ml	4.05	6.66
Cortisol	RIA	Plasma	100 Tubes	10 µl	1–60 µg/dl	0.21 µg/dl	7.03	9.20
FSH	Fluoroimmunoassay	Serum	96 Wells	25 µl	0.98–256 U/l	0.05 U/l	2.33	1.87
GH	EIA	Serum	96 Wells	100 µl	4.5–500 pg/ml	0.66 pg/ml	6.00	5.40
IGF-1	RIA	Serum	100 Tubes	100 µl	0.16–10.0 ng/ml	0.02 ng/ml	2.97	10.30
LH	RIA	Serum	100 Tubes	100 µl	2.5–200 mIU/ml	1.5 mIU/ml	5.90	7.90
Oxytocin	EIA	Plasma	96 Wells	50 µl	0–630 pg/ml	6.5 pg/ml	9.36	13.67
Prolactin	IRMA	Serum	100 Tubes	25 µl	2.5–100 ng/ml	2.5 ng/ml	5.13	8.08
Testosterone	Solid-phase RIA	Serum	100 Tubes	50 µl	20–1600 ng/dl	4 ng/dl	3.40	7.90
Thyroxine	EIA	Serum	96 Wells	50 µl	0.45–7.6 ng/dl	0.05 ng/dl	6.83	6.47
TSH	IRMA	Plasma	100 Tubes	200 µl	0.2–50 µIU/ml	0.04 µIU/ml	4.10	5.23
Vasopressin	RIA	Plasma	100 Tubes	400 µl	1.25–80 pg/ml	0.1 pg/ml	6.00	9.90

Table 2 | Screening criteria for identifying abnormal circulating hormone levels.

Axis	Criteria using lognormal distribution of community control reference sample
Adrenal insufficiency	Cortisol < 10th percentile (6.7 µg/dl), and ACTH < 10th percentile (18 pg/ml)
Thyroid deficiency	Free T-4 < 5th percentile (0.87 ng/dl), and TSH < 50th percentile (2.39 µIU/ml)
Hypogonadism	Total testosterone < 5th percentile (330 ng/dl) and either LH or FSH < 10th percentile (2.3 mIU/ml, 1.3 U/l, respectively) OR (total testosterone < 5th percentile and prolactin > 95th percentile (32 ng/ml)
Vasopressin abnormality	Vasopressin > 95th percentile (9.46 pg/ml) OR vasopressin < 5th percentile (0.27 pg/ml) and urine specific gravity < 1.003
Prolactin abnormality	Prolactin > 95th percentile (32.0 ng/ml) OR prolactin < 5th percentile (6.7 ng/ml)
GH deficiency	IGF-1 < age-adjusted 10th percentile (SDS < −1.4)
Oxytocin deficiency	Oxytocin < 5th percentile (22.7 pg/ml)
Hypopituitarism	Abnormalities in at least one of these 7 axes

modeled after those used in published studies of hypopituitarism after TBI from all causes.

RESULTS

PLASMA/SERUM HORMONE SCREENING EVALUATIONS

Eleven of 26 mTBI subjects (T), or 42%, were found to have abnormal hormone values in at least one axis. As reported in earlier studies of PTHP, deficiencies in the growth hormone-IGF-I and pituitary–gonadal axes were observed most frequently (Bavisetty et al., 2008; Dusick et al., 2008; Schneider et al., 2008; Englander et al., 2010; Kokshoorn et al., 2010; Krahulik et al., 2010; Park et al., 2010; Pavlovic et al., 2010; van der Eerden et al., 2010).

Markedly low IGF-I levels are strong indicators of adult GHD (Juul et al., 1997; Hartman et al., 2002; Hadjadj et al., 2007; Ho, 2007; Prodam et al., 2008; Tanriverdi et al., 2011; Zgaljardic et al., 2011). The red line in **Figure 1** represents the cutoff level used to define our criterion for subnormal IGF-I levels indicative of probable GHD. The cutoff level was defined to be an IGF-I concentration below the age-adjusted 10th percentile level [equivalent to an SD score (SDS) below −1.4] of the community control reference sample (**Figure 1; Table 2**). Five Veteran participants with mTBI (T-4, T-8, T-16, T-25, and T-28) were found to have serum IGF-I concentrations below this cutoff line. None of the Veteran participants in the DC group were found to have subnormal age-adjusted IGF-I levels (**Figure 1**).

Three participants with mTBI (T-4, T-13, and T-28) were found with abnormal hormonal profiles indicating probable hypogonadism. The criteria were a total testosterone concentration less than the 5th percentile of the reference sample together with an LH or FSH level below the 10th percentile reference level (**Figure 2; Table 2**). T-4 and T-28 also had the lowest two IGF-I levels among the participants (T-4: 126 ng/ml, SDS = −2.325; T-28: 86 ng/ml, SDS = −2.989). Elevated prolactin levels in conjunction with low testosterone are also indicative of hypogonadism. A serum prolactin concentration markedly higher than the 95th percentile of the reference sample was found in serum from participant T-4. A subnormal prolactin concentration (<5th percentile), also associated with sexual dysfunction, was measured in serum from T-13.

None of the Veterans in the DC group were found to have hormone levels indicative of hypogonadism. One participant in the DC group was found with a total testosterone concentration below the 5th percentile reference standard and another had an LH

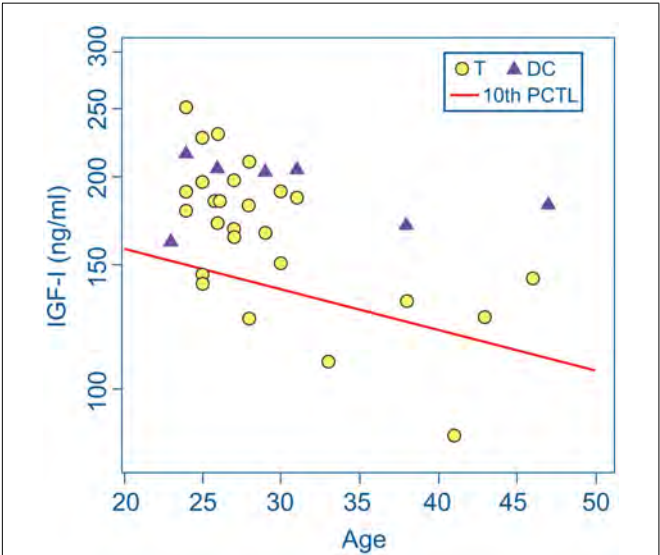
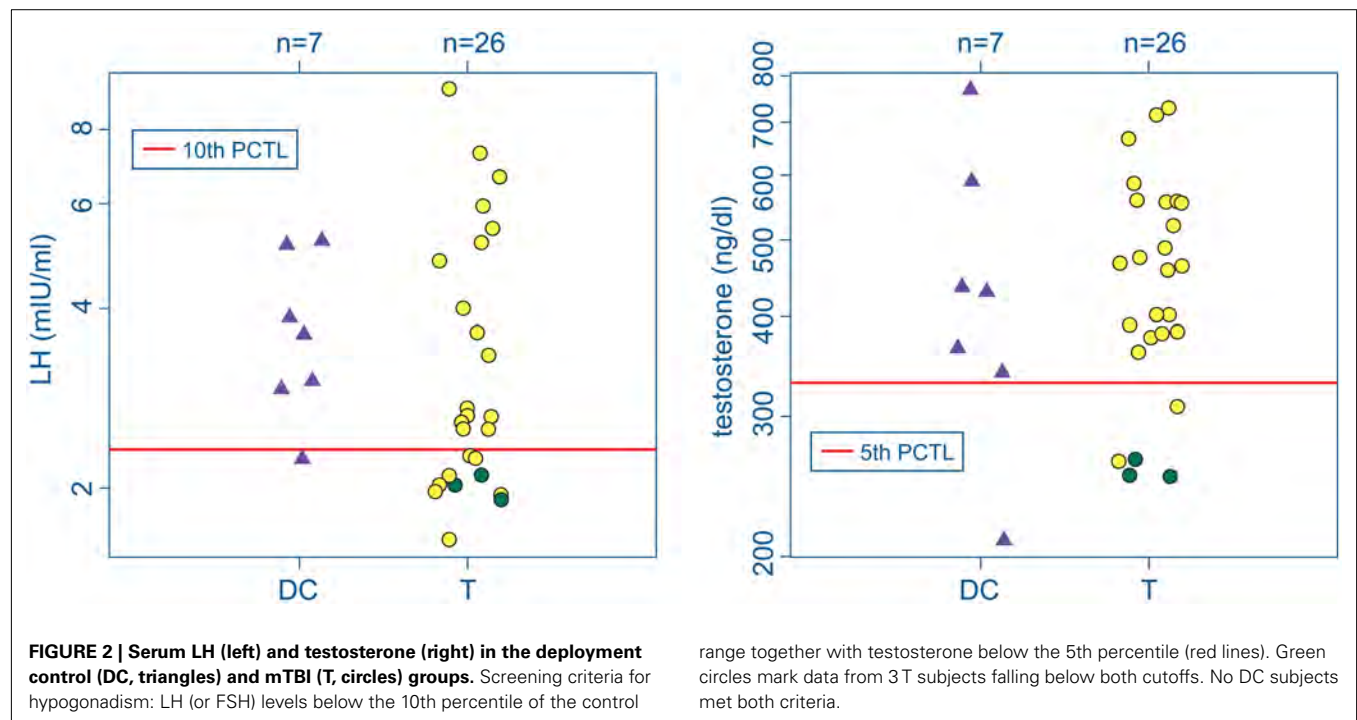


FIGURE 1 | IGF-I concentrations in serum from deployment control (DC) participants (triangles) and participants with mTBI (T, circles). The screening criterion for growth hormone deficiency was an IGF-I level below the age-adjusted 10th percentile of IGF-I concentration (diagonal red line) in the community control reference group. Serum IGF-I values of five Veterans with mTBI fell below this cutoff line. None of the DC group met this criterion.

concentration below the 10th LH percentile, but neither exhibited the combined gonadotropin and testosterone deficiencies consistent with hypogonadism.

None of the Veteran participants in either the T or DC group exhibited abnormalities in the hypothalamic-pituitary–adrenocortical or hypothalamic-pituitary–thyroid axis (**Table 3**). The corticotrophs and thyrotrophs are located in the protected median wedge of the anterior pituitary and are anatomically less vulnerable to injury than gonadotropin- and GH-secreting cells. This differential anatomical vulnerability correlates well with the frequency of chronic hormonal abnormalities observed after TBI (Bavisetty et al., 2008; Blair, 2010; Krahulik et al., 2010).

In addition to the findings of anterior pituitary hormone abnormalities in six Veteran participants with mTBI, eight instances of anomalous posterior pituitary hormone levels were



found in six Veterans in the mTBI group, one of whom, T-28, also had evidence of presumptive GHD and hypogonadism. The plasma oxytocin concentration was unmeasurably low in this individual (**Table 3**). None of the Veterans in the DC group were found to have abnormal posterior pituitary hormone values.

Three additional participants from the mTBI group (T-10, T-14, and T-22) also were found to have circulating oxytocin concentrations below the reference sample's 5th percentile level. Two of these participants, T-10 and T-22, also met our criteria for arginine vasopressin (AVP) deficiency: plasma vasopressin concentration below the 5th percentile of the reference level in combination with urine specific gravity less than 1.003. In addition, plasma vasopressin concentrations in participants T-2 and T-12 were abnormally elevated above the 95th percentile of the reference group.

DEMOGRAPHICS, DEPLOYMENT HISTORY, BLAST EXPOSURE, AND MEDICATION USE

After completion of hormone measurement and identification of Veterans with apparent hypopituitarism, participants in the T group were divided into two subgroups, based on the presence or absence of hormone abnormalities, for comparison of demographic, deployment history, blast exposure, and medication use data with each other and with the DC group. The three groups of Veteran participants did not differ in age, education, or body mass index at the time of enrollment, and the two mTBI subgroups did not differ significantly from one another on any of the measures of deployment history or blast exposure (**Table 4**).

CONCURRENT MEDICATIONS

Medications with potential neuroendocrine effects taken by mTBI subjects found to have indications of hypopituitarism were opiates (2/11), prazosin (2/11), selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors

(SSRIs; 4/11), serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs; 2/11), hypnotics (2/11), atypical antipsychotics (1/11), calcium channel blockers for migraine (1/11), benzodiazepines (1/11), and mirtazapine (1/11). Five subjects in this group were not taking any neuroactive medications. Medications with potential neuroendocrine effects taken by mTBI subjects found to have hormone levels within normal ranges were opiates (1/15), prazosin (4/15), SSRIs (3/15), SNRIs (2/15), mirtazapine (1/15), trazodone (1/15), benzodiazepines (1/15), and disulfiram (1/15). Nine subjects in this group were not taking any neuroactive medications. Medications with potential neuroendocrine effects taken by DC subjects were opiates (1/7), SSRIs (1/7), and SNRIs (1/7). Five subjects in this group were not taking any neuroactive medications.

DISCUSSION

Our findings in this preliminary study support the hypothesis that blast mTBI carries a risk of PTHP similar to that found in several previous studies of hypopituitarism in the general population after TBI from all causes. We have found that blood samples from 11 of 26, or 42% of Veterans of combat in Iraq or Afghanistan had abnormal circulating hormone concentrations consistent with PTHP. Five participants with blast mTBI exhibited evidence of anterior pituitary dysfunction, five additional subjects had anomalous posterior pituitary hormone levels, and the eleventh was found to have both anterior and posterior pituitary hormonal abnormalities. In contrast, none of the seven Veterans of deployment to Iraq and/or Afghanistan in the study who did not experience blast trauma – the DC group – were found to have evidence of pituitary dysfunction.

As Kokshoorn et al. (2010) pointed out in their review of 14 investigations of PTHP conducted between 2000 and 2009, these early studies used a broad variety of screening criteria that were sometimes described in general terms rather than with specifically

Table 3 | Plasma or serum hormone concentration for each participant.

Subject	Age	#BE	ACTH (pg/ml)	Cort (μg/dl)	LH (mIU/ml)	FSH (U/l)	tTest (ng/dl)	PRL (ng/ml)	TSH (μIU/ml)	ft-4 (ng/dl)	IGF-I (ng/ml)	GH (pg/ml)	AVP (pg/ml)	OT (pg/ml)
T-1	24	11	24	6.6	2.58	0.46	473	12.5	1.70	1.29	190	58	3.4	64
T-2	26	6	20	11.9	2.03	–	669	9.6	1.92	1.67	185	71	12.3	181
T-3	27	10	22	10.2	5.15	2.05	557	13.0	1.59	1.59	164	50	4.0	166
T-4	33	15	19	7.5	2.03	2.06	252	54.9	1.17	1.22	110	11	8.0	88
T-5	38	102	24	12.8	2.11	2.33	362	14.9	1.16	1.18	133	0	0.4	71
T-6	46	5	29	12.1	1.95	1.41	402	11.1	1.08	1.09	143	152	0.7	61
T-7	26	20	28	14.1	3.34	1.63	559	12.0	2.26	1.29	172	223	0.0	39
T-8	25	21	35	11.3	2.72	4.02	401	11.9	1.13	1.55	141	294	0.2	44
T-9	24	102	39	12.0	4.81	3.28	730	14.4	1.16	1.05	251	1288	8.0	52
T-10	26	20	30	9.6	1.97	2.43	520	12.3	2.41	1.39	230	68	0.2	22
T-11	28	9	31	10.2	1.64	2.38	382	9.2	1.30	1.22	182	0	1.1	36
T-12	27	15	27	9.9	7.27	5.70	715	13.0	1.57	1.38	198	60	12.0	55
T-13	31	7	40	7.8	1.92	1.18	253	6.3	2.24	1.14	187	0	6.4	50
T-14	30	6	36	8.8	2.66	2.51	390	12.0	3.75	1.13	151	310	0.5	19
T-15	27	11	16	7.4	2.27	3.56	377	10.1	1.40	1.14	168	42	4.4	85
T-16	28	66	25	11.7	2.64	4.01	380	21.5	0.65	1.52	126	0	0.9	190
T-17	25	18	26	11.2	9.32	3.00	465	17.1	1.26	1.25	197	0	4.8	151
T-18	24	7	30	14.2	3.65	2.21	556	12.2	1.27	1.30	179	60	4.3	32
T-19	30	1	32	18.6	5.44	3.01	457	11.7	1.55	1.13	190	66	0.0	46
T-20	28	3	17	25.0	6.65	3.91	309	10.4	0.79	1.31	210	1696	7.9	519
T-22	25	4	21	17.6	4.00	4.48	588	12.8	1.09	1.24	227	110	0.0	21
T-23	29	52	11	8.7	2.52	2.55	554	8.9	1.34	1.35	166	95	4.0	199
T-25	25	12	8	7.7	2.24	4.34	463	7.2	1.42	1.23	146	813	2.1	25
T-26	26	11	9	6.8	5.94	1.14	488	8.4	0.81	1.18	185	42	0.9	457
T-27	43	5	29	7.5	2.52	3.89	263	7.1	0.60	1.04	126	13	2.6	50
T-28	41	12	15	11.1	2.11	2.64	264	15.3	1.22	1.11	86	375	8.4	0

Shaded values indicate hormone axis abnormalities as defined in **Table 2**. #BE, number of self-reported blast exposures meeting ACRM criteria for mTBI during military career; ACTH, adrenocorticotropin; Cort, cortisol; LH, luteinizing hormone; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; tTest, total testosterone; PRL, prolactin; TSH, thyroid-stimulating hormone; ft-4, free thyroxine; IGF-I, insulin-like growth factor-I; GH, growth hormone; AVP, vasopressin; OT, oxytocin.

defined cutoffs. We attempted to use relatively conservative and explicitly defined criteria based on the distribution of specific hormone concentrations measured in a reference population. We did not employ provocative testing but used criteria based on measurement of both pituitary hormones and their target-organ hormones when possible, e.g., a combination of measurements of total testosterone, LH, FSH, and prolactin to screen for hypogonadism.

It should be cautioned that the determinations of basal hormone concentrations, such as those made in this study, are meant to be screening tools, and are not intended to be, nor should they be interpreted to be, diagnostic in the absence of clinical assessment. Measurement of basal circulating hormone concentrations is generally considered an appropriate screening tool for provisional identification of deficient thyroid function, hypogonadism, and prolactin and oxytocin deficiencies. Diagnosis of significant abnormalities of vasopressin secretion normally require confirmation by measures of plasma and/or urine osmolality, urine specific gravity (UGS), and/or the administration of a water deprivation test. Although provocative testing is generally considered necessary for diagnosis of sAI and GHD, measurement of basal cortisol and IGF-I concentrations remain valuable screening tools to identify individuals most likely to benefit from additional testing and

clinical referral. Evaluation of clinical signs and symptoms are essential for definitive diagnoses in all cases.

Previous studies have found GHD to be the most prevalent chronic endocrine consequence of TBI, and it carries with it a potentially large range of symptoms. Provocative testing is considered to be a requisite for the reliable diagnosis of GHD because serum GH concentrations measured in the morning are not valid indicators of daily secretion or somatotroph function. GH secretion occurs predominantly during sleep, and morning levels are generally very low but punctuated unpredictably by short secretory bursts (Van Cauter et al., 1992). However, GH stimulates hepatic production of IGF-I that provides a useful index of somatotroph function. IGF-I concentrations have low diagnostic sensitivity for identifying GHD but are highly specific. The presence of normal IGF-I values cannot be used to exclude GHD because it is often diagnosed in individuals with normal or even elevated IGF-I levels. However, markedly low age-adjusted levels of IGF-I are strongly indicative of GHD (Juul et al., 1997; Hadjadj et al., 2007; Ho, 2007; Prodam et al., 2008; Tanriverdi et al., 2011; Zgaljardic et al., 2011). Circulating IGF-I concentrations decline markedly with increasing age, and this decline must be taken into account when interpreting them.

Table 4 | Mean \pm SEM and (range) for demographic, deployment, and blast exposure data for each group of participants.

	DC (<i>n</i> = 7)	mTBI without PTHP (<i>n</i> = 15)	mTBI with PTHP (<i>n</i> = 11)
A. DEMOGRAPHICS			
Age (years)	31.1 \pm 3.3 (23–47)	29.7 \pm 1.8 (24–46)	28.8 \pm 1.5 (25–41)
Education (years)	14.0 \pm 0.7 (12–17)	13.3 \pm 0.4 (11–16)	13.6 \pm 0.5 (12–16)
Marital status	3/7 Married, 4/7 single	7/15 Married, 4/15 single, 2/15 divorced, 2/15 unknown	7/11 Married, 1/11 single, 1/11 separated, 2/11 unknown
Body mass index (BMI)	28.5 \pm 2.1 (<i>n</i> = 5) [†]	27.9 \pm 1.3 (<i>n</i> = 14) [†]	29.0 \pm 1.3 (<i>n</i> = 10) [†]
B. DEPLOYMENT HISTORY			
Number of deployments	1.7 \pm 0.4 (1–3)	1.9 \pm 0.2 (1–4)	2.1 \pm 0.3 (1–3)
Time between first and second deployments (months)	14.3 \pm 7.0 (3.5–27.5) (<i>n</i> = 3)	15.9 \pm 3.1 (4.0–39.5) (<i>n</i> = 10)	15.4 \pm 2.4 (7.5–30.0) (<i>n</i> = 8)
Time between second and third deployments (months)	6.0 \pm 1.0 (5.0–7.0) (<i>n</i> = 2)	8.0 \pm 2.0 (6–12) (<i>n</i> = 3)	7.6 \pm 2.0 (3.0–12.5) (<i>n</i> = 4)
Time between third and fourth deployments (months)		8.0 \pm 0.0 (<i>n</i> = 1)	
Total deployment time (months)	13.0 \pm 1.8 (7–21)	18.7 \pm 2.2 (7–37)	18.2 \pm 1.7 (11–27)
C. BLAST EXPOSURE			
Deployment blast exposures meeting ACRM criteria for mTBI	0	11.1 \pm 3.3 (1–52)	14.6 \pm 5.4 (4–66)
Blast exposures meeting ACRM criteria during military career	0.3 \pm 0.3 (0–2)	24.5 \pm 8.7 (1–102)	16.7 \pm 5.2 (4–66)
Blast exposures with LOC	0	1.3 \pm 0.3 (0–4)	0.6 \pm 0.2 (0–2)
Lifetime events with LOC	0.1 \pm 0.1 (0–1)	3.1 \pm 0.7 (0–11)	1.3 \pm 0.4 (0–3)
Time since last blast exposure (months)		45.2 \pm 4.2 (14–66)	47.4 \pm 4.3 (20–67)

The Veterans with blast mTBI (T group) were divided into two subgroups based upon the presence or absence of abnormal hormonal profiles suggesting PTHP.[†] BMIs were not obtained for all participants.

Studies using receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis to compare the diagnostic accuracy of IGF-I relative to diagnosis of GHD based on provocative testing of GH secretion have reported a diagnostic specificity of 100% with IGF-I SDS cutoffs of -1.3 (Corneli et al., 2007) or -1.7 (Maghnie et al., 2005).

The individuals classified here as having a high probability of GHD all had values less than -1.4 SDs below the age-adjusted means of the reference sample. The high specificity of IGF-I measurements at this level assures a very low likelihood of false positives in diagnosing GHD. However, in light of the low sensitivity of IGF-I concentrations in predicting GHD, it is probable that some Veteran participants with normal IGF-I levels may be growth hormone deficient.

The long-term sequelae of GHD in adults for health, quality of life (QoL), and morbidity are multifaceted and complex. Low GH secretion has been associated with behavioral symptoms and deficits in several cognitive domains (Popovic et al., 2004; Fallati et al., 2006; Pavlovic et al., 2010). GHD also has significant deleterious effects on body composition and cardiovascular function. Adult GHD is associated with lipidemia, reduced lean body mass, and increased adiposity. Even partial GHD in adult patients is associated with adverse lipid profiles and early atherosclerosis (Colao et al., 2006a,b; Colao, 2008). Impairment in QoL is also a prominent feature of adult GHD, especially in the areas of energy and vitality (McGauley, 1989; Kelly et al., 2006; Bushnik et al., 2007; Svensson et al., 2007; Bavisetty et al., 2008). Adult

GHD is also associated with reductions in muscle volume and strength, decreased physical mobility, fatigue, sleep impairment, social isolation, depression, lowered metabolic rate, low sexual drive, and reduced aerobic capacity (Rosén et al., 1994; Mossberg et al., 2008).

Many of the symptoms of GHD can be successfully ameliorated or reversed by growth hormone replacement therapy. Five retrospective studies have shown that the risk of premature death from cardiovascular disease is elevated in patients with GHD (Svensson et al., 2004a). The increased risk factors such as adverse lipid profiles, increased blood pressure, abnormal body composition, increased body weight, increased coagulability, and increased markers of inflammation have all been shown to improve with GH replacement (Svensson et al., 2004a, 2007; Götherström et al., 2007a; Verhelst and Abs, 2009). GH replacement has been found to be effective in reversing cognitive impairments in several domains including simple motor speed, information processing speed, episodic memory, mental flexibility, verbal memory, and executive functioning in patients after TBI (High et al., 2010; Reimunde et al., 2011). GH replacement also normalizes muscle strength and increases bone mineral density (Götherström et al., 2007b, 2009), improves psychiatric functioning by ameliorating depression, intensity of interpersonal sensitivity, hostility, paranoid ideation, and anxiety (Maric et al., 2010), and improves QoL (Svensson et al., 2004b, 2007; Kreitschmann-Andermahr et al., 2008).

Three of the Veteran participants in the T group met our criteria for hypogonadism: a total testosterone concentration less than the 5th percentile of the reference sample together with an LH or FSH level below the 10th percentile reference level. In our very small sample, the occurrence of hypogonadism was found to be next highest in frequency to that of GHD, as was the case in several of the studies of PTHP after TBI from all causes in the general population (Bavissetty et al., 2008; Dusick et al., 2008; Krahulik et al., 2010; Park et al., 2010; Tanriverdi et al., 2010b).

Hypogonadism has significant deleterious consequences in addition to its adverse effects on fertility, psychosexual function, and general well being. Testosterone deficiency in males is associated with decreased energy and motivation, muscle weakness, reduced lean body mass, and impaired exercise tolerance (Agha and Thompson, 2005). In addition, a recent large epidemiological study has shown that untreated hypogonadism is associated with premature mortality secondary to cardiovascular disease (Tomlinson et al., 2001).

One mTBI participant, T-4, was found to have a highly elevated concentration of prolactin, 2.5 times higher than the next highest concentration measured in the T group and more than four times higher than the highest value in the DC group. Hyperprolactinemia has been causally linked with hypogonadism, specifically by reducing LH and FSH secretion, blocking LH stimulation of testicular testosterone secretion, and producing oligospermia by reducing FSH levels, resulting in hypoactive sexual desire and erectile dysfunction.

Prolactin is the only anterior pituitary hormone that is under predominantly inhibitory control. Its secretion is suppressed by dopamine, and in the absence of this inhibition, prolactin is released at high levels. Hyperprolactinemia frequently results from the use of antipsychotic medications that act as antagonists at dopamine D2 receptors (Holt, 2008; Inder and Castle, 2011).

Participant T-4 had been taking quetiapine, an atypical antipsychotic with fast dissociation kinetics at the D2 receptor [released from D2 within 12–24 h (Seeman, 2010)] that results only in low and transient prolactin secretion (Carboni et al., 2011). It has not generally been associated with hyperprolactinemia in clinical use (Haddad and Wieck, 2004; Byerly et al., 2007; Bushe et al., 2010) although a prevalence of 22% was found in one study (Montgomery et al., 2004). It is often referred to as a dopamine-sparing antipsychotic, and although it is much less potent in elevating prolactin levels than several other antipsychotics (e.g., haloperidol and risperidone), it may have prolactin-elevating effects in some individuals, perhaps including participant T-4.

One of the Veterans with mTBI was found to have a subnormal (less than 5th percentile) prolactin concentration. Hypoprolactinemia is rare in the general population, but it too has been associated with sexual dysfunction, primarily arteriogenic erectile dysfunction and premature ejaculation (Corona et al., 2009).

We found no evidence of dysfunction in the thyroid or adrenal axes as a result of blast mTBI. Previous studies of pituitary deficiencies after TBI from all causes have generally reported a lower prevalence of TSH and adrenocorticotropin (ACTH) deficiencies than of GH or gonadotropin deficits (Bavissetty et al., 2008; Blair, 2010; Krahulik et al., 2010). This pattern may be due in part to the location of pituitary corticotrophs and thyrotrophs in the gland's

protected median wedge and their blood supply via both the long hypophyseal portal vessels and the inferior hypophyseal artery. GH-secreting somatotrophs, on the other hand, are anatomically more vulnerable to damage because of their location in the pituitary's exposed lateral wings and their primary dependence on vascular input from the portal system alone. Gonadotrophs are distributed throughout the anterior pituitary, and the cells in the lateral wings are relatively vulnerable.

In addition to the six participants with hormonal levels consistent with hypogonadism and/or GHD, six of the Veterans with mTBI (including one with anterior pituitary hormonal abnormalities) exhibited abnormal plasma vasopressin and/or oxytocin concentrations. Oxytocin concentrations below the 5th percentile value of the community control group were observed in four of the mTBI participants. Two of the four also exhibited indications of vasopressin deficiency as defined by vasopressin levels below the 5th percentile of the community reference group together with urine specific gravity less than 1.003. The occurrence of deficits of both vasopressin and oxytocin in two participants suggests the possibility of disruption of the pituitary stalk or hypothalamic damage in these individuals. In addition, elevated plasma vasopressin concentrations above the reference 95th percentile were measured in two subjects.

In several studies, elevated cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) or peripheral vasopressin concentrations have been associated with PTSD, depression, schizophrenia, and other psychiatric disorders, but a causal relationship has not been established (Purba et al., 1996; van Londen et al., 1997; Coccaro et al., 1998; Merali et al., 2006; de Kloet et al., 2008; Goekoop et al., 2009; Heinrichs et al., 2009). In contrast, there is evidence from both animal and human studies for the positive association of oxytocin levels with social bonding, attenuation of stress responses in socially relevant challenges, mediation of social support, and positive social interactions (Heinrichs et al., 2009; Campbell, 2010).

Our finding of a high frequency of abnormal peripheral hormone levels after blast mTBI in this preliminary study is consistent with the investigations cited above, in which the prevalence of pituitary dysfunction fell in the 30–60% range in 11 of 22 reports. However, in general, those studies focused exclusively on anterior pituitary dysfunction. Although few studies have investigated the prevalence of chronic posterior pituitary hormonal abnormalities after TBI, most (Agha et al., 2004b, 2005; Krahulik et al., 2010), but not all (Bondanelli et al., 2004), found significant evidence of damage in that lobe as well. In this study we found significant anterior pituitary dysfunction in 23.1% of Veterans with mTBI and abnormal posterior pituitary hormone levels in 23.1% of this group as well. In contrast, the prevalence of hypopituitarism in the general adult population ranges between 290 and 455 cases per million (Regal et al., 2001).

The only other ongoing study of hypopituitarism after blast mTBI of which we are aware recently reported preliminary results based on two retrospective chart reviews. Of 147 Marines with blast-related mTBI screened approximately 1 year or more after injury, 25% were found to have abnormal levels of one or more anterior pituitary hormones (Stokes and Gallagher, 2011).

The Veteran groups in this study are highly similar in demographic characteristics and share the common experience of

deployment under highly stressful and dangerous conditions accentuated by extreme heat and the burden of heavy equipment even when not actively engaged in combat. Despite these commonalities, the experience of blast trauma and the combat situations in which these exposures occur have major long-term consequences well beyond those of deployment to Iraq or Afghanistan. The considerable overlap between the constellations of symptoms typical of chronic hypopituitarism and persistent post-concussive symptoms (PPCS), in addition to the similarities of both to PTSD, make accurate diagnosis of the etiology, progression, and identifiable differences between the conditions of critical importance for successful treatment, recovery, and rehabilitation (Masel, 2005).

The consequences of undiagnosed and untreated pituitary hormone deficiencies are manifold and significant and include diminished QoL, cognitive deficiencies, fatigue, sleep disturbance, sexual dysfunction, deleterious changes in metabolism and body composition, behavioral and psychiatric problems including anxiety, irritability, social isolation, depression, and increased cardiovascular mortality. PTHP, unlike PTSD and PPCS, is readily treatable if correctly diagnosed, and many of its symptoms can be reversed or ameliorated with appropriate hormone replacement therapy.

Several of the authors of previous studies of hypopituitarism after TBI have advocated routine endocrine evaluation after brain injury (Masel, 2004; Leal-Cerro et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2005; Urban et al., 2005; Powner et al., 2006; Behan and Agha, 2007; Ho, 2007; Behan et al., 2008; Tanriverdi et al., 2008b, 2010b; Blair, 2010; Krahulik et al., 2010; Park et al., 2010). A recent review of the literature (Guerrero and Alfonso, 2010) stated that because “many of the symptoms of hypopituitarism are similar to those of TBI, it is important to make clinicians caring for combat veterans aware of its occurrence. . . All patients who had a TBI of any severity, should undergo baseline hormonal evaluation.”

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Chronic Hypopituitarism after Blast Concussion Mild Traumatic Brain Injury in Iraq/Afghanistan Combat Veterans

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Studies of civilian traumatic brain injury (TBI) from all causes have found evidence of chronic hypopituitarism, as defined by deficient production of one or more pituitary hormones measured at least one year after injury, in 33-50% of cases (1). Its occurrence has not been found to be related to trauma severity (1,2). Hypopituitarism is associated with non-specific behavioral symptoms that can be mistaken for PTSD, including fatigue, anxiety, depression, irritability, insomnia, poor concentration and memory, and decreased quality of life (1). Despite these findings, the prevalence of hypopituitarism after blast concussion mild TBI, the signature injury of combat in Iraq and Afghanistan, has not yet been investigated. Mild TBI (mTBI) is characterized by brief loss of consciousness or loss of memory for events surrounding the trauma or any alteration of mental state (disorientation, confusion). In order to determine the frequency of pituitary dysfunction after blast concussion mTBI, we are measuring pituitary and target organ hormones in blood samples from Iraq/Afghanistan Veterans with mTBI taken at least one year subsequent to their last blast exposure. Most have experienced multiple blast exposures. Criteria for identifying abnormal circulating levels of LH, FSH, total testosterone, prolactin, ACTH, cortisol, TSH, free thyroxine, GH, IGF-I, and arginine vasopressin (AVP) were derived from RIA or EIA measurement of basal morning concentrations in a large group of male non-Veteran control subjects. In general, values below the 5th percentile or above the 95th percentile were defined as abnormal. When both pituitary and target organ hormones were measured for a given axis, a specific combination of criteria signaled dysfunction of that axis. Using the criteria defined in controls, 10 of 26 Veterans with blast mTBI were found to have abnormal hormone levels in one or more pituitary axes. Seven mTBI subjects exhibited deviant plasma AVP concentrations, either above or below the 5th-95th percentile normal range. The frequency of abnormally low or abnormally elevated AVP levels has been found to be relatively high in the acute stage of non-blast TBI, but it tends to decline with time. These preliminary findings suggest that the prevalence of hypopituitarism after blast concussion mTBI is similar to that in other forms of TBI, and that recovery and rehabilitation of blast-exposed Veterans may be facilitated by comprehensive screening for pituitary dysfunction.

(1) Ghigo E et al., Brain Inj, 2005; 19:711(2) Lieberman SA et al., J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001; 86:2752

Nothing to Disclose: CWW, ERP, EAC, JBS

152. Chronic Pituitary Dysfunction after Blast-related Mild Traumatic Brain Injury

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Background: Studies of civilian traumatic brain injury (TBI) from all causes have found evidence of chronic hypopituitarism, as defined by deficient production of one or more pituitary hormones measured at least one year after injury, in 25-50% of cases. Its frequency of occurrence has not been found to be related to trauma severity. The most common anterior pituitary dysfunctions reported were growth hormone deficiency (GHD) and hypogonadism. Hypopituitarism, and in particular adult GHD, is associated with non-specific behavioral symptoms that can be mistaken for PTSD, including fatigue, anxiety, depression, irritability, insomnia, sexual dysfunction, poor concentration and memory, and decreased quality of life. Despite the high frequency of hypopituitarism after civilian TBI, the prevalence of hypopituitarism after blast-related mild TBI, the signature injury of combat in Iraq and Afghanistan, has not yet been investigated. Mild TBI (mTBI) is characterized by brief loss or alteration of consciousness. The mechanisms of injury of blast mTBI are very complex and poorly understood. Blast is propagated directly through the skull and indirectly via blood vessels, and reflections of blast waves in a closed space can redirect and magnify their effects. The pituitary is vulnerable to compression due to its confinement in the sella turcica, and the narrow pituitary stalk (2-3 mm diameter) is subject to torsional and rotational forces resulting from brain movement.

Methods: In order to determine the frequency of pituitary dysfunction after blast-related mTBI, we are measuring pituitary and target organ hormones in blood samples taken from Iraq/Afghanistan Veterans with mTBI at least one year subsequent to their last blast exposure, and from Veterans after deployment in Iraq/Afghanistan without blast exposure. Criteria for identifying abnormal circulating levels of luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone, total testosterone, prolactin, adrenocorticotropin, cortisol, thyroid-stimulating hormone, free thyroxine, growth hormone, insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I), oxytocin, and arginine vasopressin (AVP) were derived from determinations of normative ranges of basal morning hormone concentrations in a group of male non-Veteran control subjects. In general, hormone concentrations below the 5th percentile or above the 95th percentile were defined as abnormal. When both pituitary and target organ hormones were measured for a given axis, a specific combination of criteria defined dysfunction of that axis.

Results: Based on the normative ranges defined by hormone measurements in control subjects, 11 of 26, or 42%, of Veterans with blast mTBI were found to have abnormal hormone levels in one or more

pituitary axes. Five Veterans with mTBI were found to have probable GHD, based on age-adjusted IGF-I concentrations below the 10th percentile concentration of the reference control group. Three Veterans in the mTBI group were found to have probable hypogonadism on the basis of abnormally low testosterone and LH concentrations. Six of the mTBI group were found to have abnormal levels of the posterior pituitary hormones oxytocin and/ or AVP. None of the non-blast-exposed Veterans were found to have hormone abnormalities.

Discussion: These preliminary findings suggest that the prevalence of hypopituitarism after blast-related mTBI is similar to that in other forms of TBI. Consistent with earlier studies of TBI from all causes, GH and gonadotropin deficiencies were most frequent. Posttraumatic hypopituitarism is associated with a constellation of neuropsychiatric symptoms and diminished quality of life similar to PTSD that are largely amenable to successful treatment with hormone replacement. Routine screening for pituitary dysfunction after blast mTBI shows promise for appropriately directing diagnostic and therapeutic decisions that may otherwise remain unconsidered and for markedly facilitating recovery and rehabilitation.

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Prevalence and Characteristics of Chronic Pituitary Dysfunction after Blast-related Mild Traumatic Brain Injury

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Objectives: Studies of civilian traumatic brain injury (TBI) from all causes have found evidence of chronic hypopituitarism, defined by deficient production of one or more pituitary hormones measured at least one year after injury, in 25–50% of cases. The most common pituitary disorders found were growth hormone deficiency (GHD) and hypogonadism. Hypopituitarism, and in particular adult GHD, is associated with non-specific behavioral symptoms that can be mistaken for PTSD, including fatigue, anxiety, depression, irritability, insomnia, sexual dysfunction, poor concentration and memory, and decreased quality of life. Despite the high frequency of pituitary dysfunction after civilian TBI, the occurrence of posttraumatic hypopituitarism after blast-related mild TBI (mTBI), an extremely common injury in modern military operations, has not been characterized. The objective of this study is to evaluate the prevalence and specific nature of pituitary hormone abnormalities consequent to blast mTBI.

Methods: Concentrations of twelve pituitary and target-organ hormones were measured by radioimmunoassay or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay of blood samples taken from two groups of US military Veterans of combat in Iraq and/or Afghanistan. One group consisted of participants with blast-related mTBI whose last blast exposure was at least one year prior to entry in the study. The other group consisted of participants with similar military deployment experience but without blast exposure. Criteria for identifying abnormal circulating levels of luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone, total testosterone, prolactin, adrenocorticotropin (ACTH), cortisol, thyroid-stimulating hormone, free thyroxine, growth hormone, insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I), oxytocin, and arginine vasopressin (AVP) were derived from determinations of normative ranges in a group of male non-Veteran control subjects.

Results: Eleven of 26, or 42%, of participants with blast mTBI were found to have abnormal hormone levels relative to the normative ranges in one or more pituitary axes. Five members of the mTBI group were found to have probable GHD, based on their age-adjusted IGF-I concentrations. Three of the mTBI subjects were found to have abnormally low testosterone and LH concentrations consistent with hypogonadism. Six of the mTBI group were found to have abnormal levels of the posterior pituitary hormones oxytocin and/ or AVP. None of the non-blast-exposed Veterans had any abnormal hormone concentrations.

Conclusions: These preliminary findings suggest that the prevalence of hypopituitarism after blast-related mTBI is similar to that in other forms of TBI. Pituitary hormone deficiencies are associated with a constellation of neuropsychiatric symptoms and diminished quality of life similar to those of PTSD but which are amenable to successful treatment with hormone replacement. Routine screening for pituitary dysfunction after blast mTBI shows promise for appropriately directing diagnostic and therapeutic decisions that may otherwise remain unconsidered and for markedly facilitating recovery and rehabilitation.